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FACTORS RELATING TO OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING OF RURAL YOUTH. RESEARCH SUMMARY.

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STUDIES OF SOCIOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC, EDUCATIONAL, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING THE OCCUPATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL DECISION-MAKING BY RURAL YOUTH WERE REVIEWED. INCLUDED WERE STUDIES OF ASPIRATIONS, MIGRATION AND MOBILITY, SOCIOECONOMIC SCALE, OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE, COST AND BENEFIT OF EDUCATION, EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND ACHIEVEMENT, AND PURSUIT OF HIGHER EDUCATION. CONCLUSIONS INCLUDED--(1) FEWER CAPABLE RURAL MALES ATTEND COLLEGE THAN URBAN MALES, (2) ECONOMIC FACTORS GENERALLY DO NOT APPEAR TO BE A MAJOR DECISION-MAKING FACTOR. OCCUPATION OF FATHER, ATTITUDES OF PARENTS TOWARDS EDUCATION, AND EDUCATION OF PARENTS ARE INFLUENCING FACTORS, (3) RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IS GREATER NEAR LARGE CITIES THAN IN REMOTE RURAL AREAS, (4) FARMING IS TRANSMITTED FROM FATHER TO SON IN LARGER PROPORTIONS THAN OTHER OCCUPATIONS, AND (5) ON-THE-JOB EXPERIENCE IS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR INFLUENCING DECISION MAKING. A 149-ITEM BIBLIOGRAPHY IS INCLUDED. (JM)

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RESEARCH SUMMARY

Factors Relating to Occupational and Educational Decision Making of Rural Youth

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Research Summary

by

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for

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The Nebraska Occupational Education Research and Coordination Unit

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Factors Relating to Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

Introduction

American youth occupy much of their daily existence in thought and in preparation for future adult roles. The attainment of an occupation will have an important influence on realization of other status goals, social rank, and the over-all life satisfaction the individual will experience. In the past, future-oriented behavior toward occupations has been of minor concern. In most societies, for the most part, a person inherited his job as an ascribed feature of his family rank in the community. However, in our contemporary American Society, a great amount of freedom is granted the individual in finding his way thought a maze of job possibilities. The type of employment obtained is thought to be influenced by the motivation and direction provided by occupational aspirations, expectations, and interest of adolescence.

These phenomena are crucial for the occupation attainment of rural youth, especially those who migrate into urban areas. Possibly low level occupational aspirations explain to some extent the disadvantaged position of rural migrants in the urban occupational structure. The importance attributed to the occupational orientations of youth as an explanatory variable for subsequent status attainment is evidenced by the extensive research literature on this subject and the increasing amount of attention being currently given to the study of these phenomena.

Decision making, a broad and comprehensive term, takes many forms. As the term is viewed in this context, decision making should be regarded as a process of occupational and/or educational choice along with factors which influence this process and its results.

Ginzberg found that occupational choice is developmental over a ten year period of time. Following three periods of choice, this process usually ends in a compromise. A theory developed by Super relates that preferences and competencies change constantly, thus causing a continuous process of choice and adjustment. Definite life stages include growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. Each of these periods is divided into stages of fantasy, tentative, and realistic choices.

In light that persons differ, each is qualified for a number of occupations. Each occupation requires a pattern of interests and abilities with wide tolerance. The nature of the career pattern is determined by an individual's aptitudes, background, and intelligence. Satisfaction actually depends on the individual's finding an adequate outlet for his talents.

Super, author of Psychology of Careers, makes the following statement:

> Work and occupation play an important part in determining the social status, values, attitudes and style of an individual's living. Occupation is not merely a means of earning a livelihood, but also a way of life, a social role.

Roe's theory of vocational choice considers individual experiences the child has in childhood and early adolescence as the major variable in occupational selection. According to this theory, three basic parental attitudes prevail: acceptance, concentration, or avoidance. This theory has been researched by both Grigg and Hagen, and their studies both found no significant differencee in parental orientation.

College students have been tested to determine what effect college experience has had on their career attitudes. They identify four basic needs: those of achievement, affiliation, dominance, and exhibition.

Data collected by O'Hara and Tiedeman relates that the process of occupational choice may be characterized by the self-concept with a vocational identity. This identity, an interest stage seemingly terminates by grade 10. Then a work-values stage proceeds through a secondary phase in grade 12. Reduction of discord in a person's belief about himself and his environment is the major motivation of career decision-making. These results agree essentially with Ginzberg's stages of vocational choice.

Tiedeman, in his discussion of vocational development, has divided the decision-making process into two areas, (1) the period of anticipation with exploration, crystallization and choice; (2) the period of implementation and adjustment with stages of induction and maintenance.

This brief survey of major theories of vocational choice is intended as background information to this bibliography. Concerning what constitutes vocational choice, disagreement prevails among the major theorists, however. In consideration of the sociological, economic, educational and psychological factors influencing educational and occupational choices of rural youth, theorists generally agree on several points:

1. Occupational choice is not a sudden, once-in-a-lifetime phenomenon. Occupying most of the first half of one's life, occupational choice is a gradual process.

2. Occupational choice is difficult to separate from aspiration and attainment. Because aspiration is not always fulfilled, attainment must be regarded as a separate aspect.

3. Occupational choice is a portion of the basic life process of growing. Realistically looking at one's potentialities and accepting personal limitations, a student is able to develop a clearer recognizable image of himself - the self-concept.

Reviewed literature in this discussion of factors is divided into four major sections: sociological factors, economic factors, educational factors, and psychological factors. Some overlapping exists in the separation of these four categories, particularly in the sciological and economic spheres.

A proposal states that "innate human abilities and aptitudes are distributed normally in the population, without reference to whether youth are reared in rural or urban environments, and that any differences which may be disclosed from standardized tests are functions of the cultural orientations of the tests." Keeping this tenet in mind, a summary of studies of occupational decision-making by youth generally, without particular reference to rural youth is included. However, the sociological and economic sections deal heavily with rural youth.

Three main headings of sociological, economic, and educational factors contain material gathered under seven headings including: studies (1) of aspirations, (2) of migration and mobility, (3) on occupational choice of rural youth (4) of educational and occupational attainment and achievement, (5) of pursuit of higher education by rural youth, (6) of cost and benefit of ecucation for rural youth, and (7) of the scio-economic scale.

I. Sociological Factors Influencing Vocational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

The group of factors identified as sociological is the largest of the four categories. Reviewed studies are considered in chronological order and isolated factors are listed in the summary.

Anderson studied in 1934 the changes in residence and in occupation of married couples in rural Benesee County, New York. In this era prior to World War II, he finds a social stability characteristic of rural communities. In 1937 he reviewed the activities, interests, and problems of rural youth. Several conclusions which he determines are that the lack of vocational training prevalent in rural youth is becoming an increasing employment problem and that there is increasing dissatisfaction with the values of rural life among rural young people.

In a study conducted by Holmes (1937), factors of the modifying influence of the family farm upon the choice of occupation he concludes that:

1. Many farm families hope that their offsprings will continue the family occupation.

2. Both sentimental and practical reasons are involved by parents.

3. Choices are frequently modified by a negative attitude toward those who leave and by family praise of the soundness and honesty of country life.

4. Some parents are opposed to their sons' farming.

Sisson (1941) studied the differences in vocational choice among college students from cities, towns, and farms. He concludes that the locality of residence in an important factor for college freshman, and that vocational choices of rural freshmen appears less stable than those of urban freshmen.

Swell, in 1940, developed a Farm Family Socio-Economic Status Scale. Using three tests, this scale is validated and its validity established. It is recommended for use in all practical situations where an easily available objective and quantitative description of the socio-economic status of farm families is needed.

Studying the territorial and occupational mobility of Washington youth, Landis in 1944 reaches the following conclusions:

1. The dominant pattern of territorial mobility in the state is migration from rural to urban areas, with the larger cities having the greatest drawing power.

2. The large cities have more than twice as many of the youth generation as are native, while rural areas have lost over one-quarter of theirs.

3. The pattern of rural to urban migration indicates a need for rural schools to prepare their youth for urban life.

4. While a minority of sons follow their father's occupation, the highest proportions are in the professional, laboring and farming groups with the professional leading.

5. In the area of inter-occupational mobility, the contributions of farm boys to other occupations is high, while the contribution of other occupations to farming continues to be negligible.

6. Farming has the highest proportion of self-replacements than other occupations.

7. Rural youth are frequently at a disadvantage because of the limitations imposed by their lack of educational opportunities.

8. The average farm family in the state can expect a minority of its sons to enter agricultural occupations, with a majority entering non-agricultural occupations.

Levin found in 1949 that status anxiety status is accepted, with qualification, as a primary motivation for occupational and educational choice.

In another 1949 study, Bateman concludes that young persons who hold jobs tend to reduce or modify vocational interests, or that experience tends to increase vocational choice realism.

In a 1950 study, Schwarzweller examined the sociolcultural factors and career aspirations and plans of rural Kentucky high school seniors. He finds nine percent difference between the levels of aspiration and plan. While over half of the seniors would like to go to college, only about a third of them expect to. Forty-two percent of the boys and fifty-one percent of the girls actually plan to leave their home county. Over two-thirds of the girls and one-half of the boys from these rural areas definitely preferred to live in an urban area.

"Why don't they go to college?", was asked in 1953 by Berdie. Randomly sampling 2,700 Minnesota high school graduates, he has determined that college attendance depends largely upon the family and home factor. Secondary forces come from peers, teachers, and non-home forces.

Anderson's 1953 study of high school youth and rural living values finds that groups from northwest New York and several Northern states are more favorable than unfavorable to rural living. His effective 80-item opinion scale finds the aspects of rural life agreed upon are finding healthful living, obtaining facilities for a good level of life, and rearing children.

Exploring the educational and occupational aspirations of "common man" boys, Kahl in 1953 concludes: .

1. A general way of life identifies the "common man" class. Some of its members are satisfied; some are not.

2. Discontented parents produce ambitious children, motivated to get ahead with an education.

3. The American Creed of unlimited opportunity for all is not universal.

4. Education is a key to success.

Analyzing the relationship between ten independent variables and attitudes toward high school education, Sewell, et. al. (1955) find seven factors are significant:

1. Educational attainment

2. Socio-economic status

3. Ethnic background

4. Sex

5. Occupational status

6. Size of farm

7. Age

Rusalem's 1954 study suggests that the proximity of the individual to the actual job of his choice may influence realistic or unrealistic occupational choice.

Youmans, with a 1954 examination, finds an indication of work attitudes and interests of youth are related to numerous social factors. Some of which include social stratification, work experiences and "informal" school experiences.

Lipset's 1955 study of social mobility and urbanization indicates that the size of a person's home community influences his upward-mobility. Narrowness of the visible horizons and the lack of knowledge of opportunities, retains students in small community.

Orzack in 1956 concludes that substantial preference and prejudice between rural and urban students for each other exists along residential lines. Urban students tend to place minority group status upon rural students who accept it.

Studying the differences between social strata in attitude toward achievement, Rosen's 1956 findings relate:

1. Members of the middle class show higher need achievement scores than those of the lower social strata.

2. The middle class is characterized by a large proportion of persons with achievement oriented values, the higher the class the higher the value score.

3. A relationship exists between achievement motivation and values, particularly in the educational aspiration level, academic achievement, and social class.

4. Value orientations are more likely to be acquired later in life than are achievement motivations.

In a 1956 study by Slocum and Empey, the following factors are identified in occupational planning of girls:

1. Girls tend to exceed boys sholastically, but women rarely exceed, or even equal, men occupationally.

2. The majority of girls prefer traditional womens' work.

3. More girls want professional occupations but will not be able to achieve them because of present labor conditions.

4. Experience is rated as the most important influence in decision-making.

5. Parents are frequently the most vital influence in decision-making; teachers are second; and close friends are third.

6. Tradition is a great influence, both in the choice of occupations and marriage-career decisions.

7. Girls have less interest in monetary rewards of occupations than boys.

Studying occupational plans of high school senior from farm and non-farm homes, Slocum determines that farm boys planning to enter the occupation of their father have higher preparation in comparison with those entering non-farm occupations. He also finds that actual working experience and influential persons are important factors in crystallizing occupational choices.

A longitudinal New York State study was published in 1956 by Anderson, Larson and Halloul. They find that between 1926 and 1951 that more non-farmers are moving into rural areas, and they continue with their urban employment. Rural isolation disappears with better roads, cars, and bus service. With an increase of more than 50 per cent in population count, more organizations with social opportunities exist in these rural communities.

Sociologists Mack, Murphy, and Yellin are unable to reject the null hypothesis because of limited samplings concerning relation to level of aspiration and social mobility. They have determined, however, that no significant differences will be found either in social mobility patterns or in aspiration level between samples of Protestant and Catholic citizens in several occupations.

Empey in 1956 study determines:

1. The absolute occupational status aspirations of male high school seniors from the middle and upper classes are significantly higher than those of seniors from the lower classes.

2. The relative occupational status aspirations of lower-class seniors indicate that they prefer and anticipate having significantly higher occupational statuses than their fathers.

These findings seem to indicate that the lower level seniors have a different level of aspiration from upper level seniors, although they may aspire above their present social class.

Zimmer found in 1956 that rural migrants entering an urban setting participate in city life less than urban natives. High social status tends to mitigate the effect of a rural background.

Haller in 1957 finds that if a boy plans to farm, he is most generally deterred from planning to go to college. Farm boys who plan to farm have higher intelligence test scores than those who do not.

In another 1957 study, Haller and Sewell find that aspirations of girls are not affected by residence and, that among boys, occupational aspiration is not affectual. However, educational aspiration is affected by residential background.

Walker's 1958 study determines that occupational and educational decision-making stereotypes are no stronger than ethnic (a distinct cultural group) sterotypes.

Surveying the educational status, college plans, and occupational status of farm and non-farm youth, Cowhig (1959) divides his findings into three sections:

A. <u>High school seniors</u>

1. About half of all non-farm high school seniors, but only about a third of farm seniors, report definite plans to attend college next year (1960).

2. Students from families in which the head of the household is a white-collar worker more often report definite college plans than those from blue-collar homes.

3. Over two-thirds of students from high-income families, but only one-fourth from low income families have definete college plans.

4. In October, 1959, over a fifth of high school seniors who plan to attend college have not yet decided on their major field or study.

5. About 25 per cent of all males planning to attend college plan majors in engineering, and 22 per cent of females plan educational majors. Two per cent of males plan agricultural majors.

6. A large proportion of seniors with no college plans name economics as a reason.

7. Economic reasons for not attending college are more frequent among farm than among non-farming seniors.

B. College students

1. Of the 3.3 million persons under 35 enrolled in college in October, 1959, six per cent are farm residents.

2. About six-tenths of college students report some financial assistance from parents, and more farm than non-farm students are receiving such assistance.

3. Engineering and business are the major fields most often reported, for males, and education is the field often reported by females.

4. Less than two per cent are majoring in agriculture.

C. Persons 16-24 years of age who are not enrolled in school

1. Two-tenths of high school graduates in this group who have not attended college report a lack of money as their reason.

2. More farm than non-farm males report no desire to attend college.

3. Forty-five per cent of non-whites, and 16 per cent of whites report lack of funds as their reason for not attending college.

4. Among college drop-outs in this group, males most often give economic reasons, and females marriage, as reasons for dropping out.

5. There is more unemployment, and more employment in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs among males without high school graduation than among those who have finished high school.

6. Farm males without high school graduation are most frequently employed as farm laborers, whereas urban males at the same level are concentrated in semi-skilled occupations.

7. There is more unemployment among non-whites, and more employment in manual and service jobs, than among whites of the same educational level.

This study indicates that lower educational level, lower aspirations, and more economic difficulties among rural young persons are contrasted with special problems encountered by non-white rural and urban youth.

Elias studied in 1959 the self-appraisal concept in determining adjustment of farm-youth as compared with other youth. His findings show more social maladjustment with farm youth while they experience better adjustment with family.

In a 1959 personality differentials study, Munson finds significant differences in personal and social adjustment among urban, suburban, town, and rural children. Exhibiting the greatest degree of adjustment, the suburban youth lead with urban, rural, and town children following in that order. These findings challenge the popular belief that rural life is more "wholesome" and leads to better adjustment.

Wilson investigated in 1959 significant normative references which influence an individual's values within a school. He finds that the climate of the school tends to affect aspirations, academic achievement, occupational aspirations, and political preferences.

Hathaway, Monachesi, and Young (1959) sampled 15,000 in a study of social and psychological adjustment. Findings show that rural children are shyer, more self-depreciating, more suspicious of others, and less rebellious against authority than urban and town youth.

Surveying four rural communities in Michigan, Cowhig, Artis, Beeble, and Goldsmith (1960) sought residential and occupational plans of high school seniors.

The following findings are reported:

1. Seven-tenths of the students plan to leave the community following graduation. Boys are most favorable disposed toward the community; girls least. Attendance in college and military service are the main reasons.

2. If jobs are available in their locale, a majority of the seniors are willing to remain.

3. Most students prefer to live in the same type of areas as that in which they are living.

4. About four-tenths of the males and seven-tenths of the females prefer white-collar work. About one-tenth of the males plan to farm.

5. Thirty per cent plan to attend college, with no significant asscciation between college plans and family income of father's occupation.

6. There is a close assoication between father's education and occupational and educational plans of students. More males than females plan on college, and less farm residents than rural non-farm plan.

Through a series of studies, Burchinal (1960) investigated farm youth plans. His findings tend to indicate factors including the unavailability of land, machinery, and working capital were major for those planning to farm. A certain amount of conflict exists between the desirability of rural or urban life among boys deciding not to farm.

Burchinal believes that there is still too little occupational information available to farm youth. Completing his series of rural youth studies, he feels that farm parents show too little encouragement or interest in education and occupational plans for their children.

In his study of 80 Iowa farm girls, Burchinal reveals that 69 per cent expect to become farm wives, 31 per cent plan to leave the farm.

A 1960 farm population circular released by the U. S. Department of Commerce Census Bureau and the U. S. Department of Agricultural Marketing Service lists agriculture as having 1.4 per cent of the distribution of major field college study. Engineering, biology, and education are listed with highest percentages and numbers of students.

Kanel in 1960 finds since World War I, two major reasons for the limitation of opportunities for beginning farmers. First, lack of working capital to start farming is preventative. Secondly, many families have not been able to enlarge the acreage of their farm because of land prices and of credit being more difficult to obtain. The result of these two drawbacks is that fewer youth are entering farming.

Edlefsen and Crowe (1960) studied occupational aspirations of teenagers. They find:

1. There is more preference for the higher and middle status jobs than for blue-collar occupations, with children of fathers in higher and middle status occupational groups preferring to enter the same occupational groups as their fathers.

2. Actual work experience in the field is the paramount reason for the student's interest in his preferred occupations.

3. Although the majority of students prefer higher status jobs, many do not expect to reach this occupational level.

4. Residence appears to be important in the occupational outlook. Residents of towns prefer to work with people, while residence does not appear to affect work involving ideas.

5. Students who have definite college plans are uncertain about occupational choice.

6. Students who are certain of their choice make the choices on their own, or with only subtle, unnoticed, parental guidance.

7. Aspiring to higher and middle status occupations, students are also very interested in advanced education and technical training.

8. As the education boys advances, the preference for higher status occupations increases.

9. Decreasing parental influence is found to be a pattern in analyzing the comparison between the grade of the students and their choosing an occupation corresponding with their parents' choice.

Analyzing work experience of Wisconsin rural youth, Straus (1962) finds no evidence that farm boys having more work and less money than non-farm youth impeds the acquiring of financial skills. The fact exists that farm boys have less opportunity than non-farm boys to learn how to handle money.

Testing the hypothesis that certain personal and social characteristics are associated with educational achievement and their characteristics can be observed in relation to the various levels of educational achievement, in a 1960 study of rural young people by Wilson and Buck. Their work dealt with four levels of formal education: High school dropouts, high school graduates, vocational school students, and college students. Generally the following characteristics are significant: sex, residence, academic interest in science, hobby interests in athletics, position in family, reading habits, student's choice of white-collar employment, blue-collar work of father, white-collar occupation as high status, blue-collar work as lowest status, and family status.

Buck and Bible in 1961 identified some personal and social factors associated with varying amounts of formal education more than 2,000 young adults reared in rural areas of Pennsylvania. Findings of sampling from this study show 15 percent do not finish high school; 39 percent terminate their formal education at high school graduation; 31 percent engage in some posthigh school education below college level; and 15 percent attend college. Boys frequently cite lack of interest as a reason for dropping out; girls cite being needed at home. The number of years of parents' schooling is directly related to the amount of education of their children. Occupation of the father is related to continuing education. Occupational aspirations are also related to continuing education.

Burchinal (1962), in a review of available literature concerning career choices of rural youth in a changing society, cites four factors related to choice between farming and non-farming occupational choice:

1. Boys planning to farm come from farm families with higher net assets, greater capital resources, or incomes. Family farm ownership, number of acres owned or operated, previous employment of parents are also important factors.

2. Usually high economic resources of parents are associated with high educational and occupational aspirations for their children.

3. Boys planning to farm usually cited their fathers as the greatest influence on their occupational plans. Boys planning not to farm tended to cite mothers, teachers, or vocational counselors as being most influential.

4. There was little or no relationship between various community-related variables and farm or non-farm choices.

Burchinal sees several implications in his findings:

1. It is becoming more and more necessary and desirable to rural youth to move to urban areas in pursuit of satisfying careers.

2. There is frequently a wide disparity between aspiration and fulfilment.

3. Rural youth appear to be at a disadvantage in the urban labor market. This is probably due to their lack of skills, training, value orientation and personality characteristics necessary for success in an urban environment. Farm youth appear to be at a greater disadvantage than do non-farm rural youth.

4. There appearad to be a strong negative influence on plans to attend college and intention to farm.

5. Occupational choices appear to be a combination of tentative choices and occupational role-taking, related to the social and psychological development of the individual.

6. Rural youth from lower socioeconomic levels face special problems in occupational decision-making, although the differences are not solely due to economic factors, but may involve parental attitudes.

A study of role expectations in Mexican and U. S. high school students was conducted in 1962 by Hall. His findings show that Mexican nationals show more particularistic-type role expectations than do U. S. students. The U. S. groups show more collectivity orientation toward the peer group.

Nan and Cowhig in a 1962 study relate factors concerning college attendance of farm and non-farm high school graduates:

1. Three out of ten youths do not graduate from high school, and the factors most closely related are low scores on ability measures, families with low socioeconomic status, and color.

2. Eleven percent fewer high school graduates attend college than had previously indicated plans to attend college.

3. Rural-farm high school graduates are more realistic in college plans than are non-farm graduates.

4. A majority of graduates in the top quartiles in I. Q. tests and scholastic standing attend college. About one-fifth of those in the bottom quartile also attend.

5. About twice as many graduates from white-collar homes attend college as from blue-collar homes.

6. About seven out of ten of the graduates are in the college preparatory course, while only two out of ten of those in other courses, attend college.

Kaldor, et. al, completed a 1962 study of career plans of farm boys in Iowa.

A. Nearly 38 per cent of the 870 boys surveyed plan to farm.
58 per cent plant to enter non-farm occupations.
1 per cent plan to combine two jobs, farm and non-farm.
3 per cent have no long-range plans.

B. Parental career plans are reported by a slightly larger number of boys planning to farm than of boys planning non-farm jobs.

C. Of the boys planning not to farm, the following reasons are given:
   1. Farming requires too much capital
   2. Unfavorable working conditions in farming
   3. Dislike of farming
   4. Poor income opportunity
   5. Lack of opportunity

D. Influences which govern boys in making their occupational plans include:
   1. Boys planning to farm
      a. Parents
      b. Work experience
      c. FFA experience
      d. Close friends
      e. 4-H experience
   2. Boys not planning to farm.
      a. Parents
      b. Close friends
      c. Reading
      d. Study at school
      e. Work experience
      f. Teachers
      g. Occupations of other persons admired by the boy.

E. Boys planning non-farm careers are more likely to plan post-high school education or training.

Christiansen, Payne, and Brown (1963) in an effort to account for the relatively high achievement of rural youth in Utah, find that Mormon religious values are positively associated with educational achievement.

A study by McDilland Coleman (1963) uncovers some paradoxical findings. Midwestern high school students are likely to have a positive orientation toward attending college and a negative orientation toward academic achievement.

Buck's interpretation of rural values views rural America as essentially pragmatic toward social and economic policies.

Haller, Burchinal, and Taves (1963) find that the young person is dependent upon many persons in termination of occupational choices.

Mierzwa (1963) supports the concept of multi-determinants of a young person's career choice.

Sewell's evidence (1963) indicates that the school is an important force in the determination of the aspirations and achievements of youth. He suggests that everything possible should be done to improve the rural high schools' quality. An extensive program of educational and vocational guidance should be especially useful in adequately informing rural students.

Miller and Haller (1964) have studied measurement level of occupational aspiration, which they see as the level of the occupational prestige hierarchy viewed as a goal by the individual. Using an Occupational Aspiration Scale, they conclude it is a practicable and reliable measure of occupational aspiration level.

Sewell (1964) examined the relationships between community of residence and college plans of Wisconsin high shcool seniors. He finds that as the community increases in size, the percentage of students with college plans also increases.

In a study of Florida rural areas in transition, Alleger (1964) finds that economic opportunity is twice as great in the industrialized area as in strictly farm zones. Farm income improvement appears to be related to an increase in manufacturing income in a given area.

Stensland studied in 1964 community change on the Canadian prairies and finds that a trend from rural life and agriculture is toward industrialization and urban living. He ascribes several factors:

1. Limited space available for new agricultural enterprise.

2. A new pattern of settlement imposed by technology and science.

3. Level and standard of living

4. Organization for use of resources

5. Participation patterns

6. Purposes and values

Alexander and Campbell (1964) find a definite influence on adolescents by the plans of best friends to attend college.

A study by Goldsmith, Fliegel, Copp, and Johnson (1964) criticizes the Straus Rural Attitudes Profile of 1959.

In a 1964 study by Gottfried and Jones, the importance of expanding opportunities for high school students to work with exceptional children is stressed. The necessity for gaining a better understanding to the relationship between motivational patterns, career choice, and career satifaction is considered.

Perrone (1964) determines that if an individual is going to match himself with a job, he needs assistance in knowing several aspects of himself as well as knowing more about various occupations.

Eckland (1965) finds that graduation from college is a dominant factor in occupational choice. This experience tends to remove the limitations of class structure and assures upward mobility.

Lionberger, Gregary, and Chong (1965) attempt to determine the nature, conditions, and circumstances of high school seniors in making college and alternative occupational choices in Missouri rural and urban areas. In the student's selection of a job, the following reasons are cited as important in decision-making:

1. Security
2. Beginning pay
3. Working conditions
4. Sources of occupational information

McCall's magazine carried findings of a study made by Grafton (1965), and it discusses the reasons for wrong occupational choices:

1. Consideration of remuneration only
2. Accepting ideas of parents or friends without investigating their worth.
3. Limiting choice to white-collar work
4. Looking at only one aspect of an occupation--glamor, etc.
5. Playing hunches
6. Confusing interest with ability
7. Keeping rigidly to a childhood dream, without considering alternatives.
8. Unrealistic view, ignorance of the actualities of the labor market.

Haller's study (1966) focusses mainly on boys who plan to leave farming. This study suggests that a boy who has planned to farm and then shuts himself off from further vocational information combined with the geographic isolation of rural life tends to increase the tendency toward farming as a career.

II. Economic Factors in Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

Because of the difficulty of separating sociological from economic factors and because of the extensiveness of the sociological section, this division will be shorter. An attempt has been made to deal with those focusing on economics, with peripheral interest in sociological aspects.

Conducting a basic study in this area in 1942, Boynton and Woolwine questioned 2,548 high school girls from the Southern and Southeastern sections of the nation. Two-thirds from rural areas and one-third from urban settings, these girls were questioned concerning vocational preference and expectations. Results reveal a definite relationship between the economic background of the girls and their vocational interests. The thinking of lowest status girls tends to fall into a kind of occupational stereotype pattern.

Metzler in 1959 developed the hypothesis that in low income areas subsistence level farm and rural families have little desire to have high incomes. If limited in desire to advance with technological advances, young persons tend to shift from agriculture because of technique improvements in farming. The major shift is to employment in a large city. Inherent values of these persons are a strong handicap in their urban life adjustment. Metzler concludes that a need exists for general education along with occupational skills for urban livelihood.

Eldridge, Kaldor, Burchinal, and Arthur (1962) studied the occupational plans and preferences of Iowa farm boys to find how much influence capital needs affect vocational plans. Findings seem to indicate that the amount of personally owned capital is not a great factor upon the vocational objectives of the boys. Other general conclusions from this 1962 study include:

1. Boys who planned to farm come from families with an average net worth of slightly more than $40,000, while those who plan to enter non-farm occupations come from families with an average net worth of $29,000. The difference is even greater for boys "certain" of their plans. The parents of boys planning to farm are able to provide more financial assistance.

2. Family financial resources also affect plans to attend college, with boys in the high-income group more likely to plan on college, and boys in the group planning not to farm more interested in college.

3. Nearly 72 percent of the boys planning to farm expect some family help in getting started, compared with 58 percent of the boys planning non-farm careers. There is little difference in the proportions expecting help in the form of money loans. The aid is in the form of parental gifts, with the boys planning to farm expecting considerably more than the non-farm group.

4. Little difference exists between the proportion of boys planning to farm who thought they could expect family assistance in entering a non-farm job and the boys from the non-farm group who expect a similar assistance. Both groups feel that they could expect less assistance in farming than in non-farming occupations.

These conclusions may indicate that farm families influence boys toward farming or that farm family resources are more likely to be used to assist entry into farming than other occupations.

In another 1962 study, Burchinal, Kaldor, Eldridge, and Arthur find that boys planning to farm anticipate greater income than boys planning not to farm. Boys planning to farm are generally more optimistic and make higher estimates for necessary capital and resources for farming than boys not planning to farm.

Clawson and Held (1963) project long-range national needs, concentrating or rural poverty and the prospects for the future of agriculture. They project present conditions to the year 2000 A. D., and conclude that fewer farmers will be needed; however, production must increase. They see an urgent need for off-farm employment opportunities for rural youth. Less capital investment in farming or more return to the farmer in relation to his investment are seen as necessary to the future of agriculture. This means a need for a relative decrease in land values and capital investment in farming.

In analyzing the characteristics of 1,074 employed male houselold heads, Taylor and Glasgow (1963) studied occupations and low-income rural citizens. Findings of this study reflect that ambition transfer to the younger generation from the current generation is mainly interest in more security and a higher income, but not occupational advancement.

From a 1964 study by Moore, Baum, and Glasgow, economic factors which influencing educational attainments and aspirations of farm youth reveal the following rural economic factors:

1. Inadequate educational and training facilities result from an unequal share in the national growth. Small school districts, low population density, and low income are responsible.

2. Limited financial resources available to provide higher education.

3. Educational attainment and aspirations of parents.

4. Occupational status of the head of the household.

5. A positive influence on post-high school education of farm youth is the variety of sources available for educational loans: private banks, colleges or schools, National Defense Educational Act, miscellaneous scholarships and gifts. Many of these sources, of course, are available only to farmers with a large acreage, and relatively high income level.

Focusing upon a population of young men reared in a low-income rural situation, Schwarzweller (1964) studied eastern Kentucky occupational placement and economic life changes. One of the unusual findings reveals that non-migrant high school graduates enjoy less material success than migrant drop-outs who had migrated to industrial areas. He also finds that high school education apparently does not function as a selective mechanism for job placement, although it may be a necessary criteria for advancement.

Rude (1964) tested 45 rural Hill County (Indiana) employed males and found their level of abilities is equal, or better than the U. S. Male population. A lack of training in the communications skills and conceptual factors is necessary for these rural persons to compete for jobs. Only a change in the educational system brought about by a change in economics can help this situation.

Focusing on unemplcyment and income problems, Janssen and Rude (1964) identify the following problems:

1. Low-income rural areas usually have a steady loss of population.

2. Low-income rural areas rarely have job opportunities to attract new population.

3. There is a marked difference in the populations of rural and urban areas, with a larger proportion of older people concentrated in the rural areas.

4. A lack of good employment opportunities is probably the principal reason for out migration from rural areas, and theprcblem is increased with proximity to a prcsperous urban area.

5. Solutions suggested include persuading firms to locate in the area, a solution complicated by lack of water, transportation, raw materials, and training of young people to seek employment and to fill available jobs.

III. Educational Factors Influencing Vocational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

This section of the review deals with those factors associated with education--college, vocational school, high school and school dropouts. As with the previous two sections of sociological and economic factors, some overlapping and repetition is also to be found in this educational factors section.

Concentrating upon the educational selectivity of rural-urban migration and its bearing on wage and occupational adjustments, Landis (1941) concludes:

1. Rural youth migrating to urban areas are far better educated than rural youth remaining behind, but less well educated than urban youth with whom they compete for jobs.

2. Urban youth moving to rural areas are less well educated than urban youth who remain in cities, but are better educated than rural youth.

3. Despite educational disadvantages, rural youth who move to cities excel urban youth in income.

4. Urban youth who move to rural areas have better incomes than rural youth who remain in rural areas. This is especially true of girls.

Sewell, Marshall, Haller, and Dehart (1953) analyzed factors associated with attitude toward high school education in rural Wisconsin. Seven determining factors are: educational attainment, socio-economic status, ethnic background, sex, occupational status, size of farm, and age.

Berdie in 1953 asked the question, "Why don't they go to college?" Factors affecting his answer include:

1. Home situation

2. Outside forces such as teachers and counselors

3. The acts and related attitudes of primary interest relevant to the development of the continuing behavior of "attending college." The constancy and strength of the forces within the field are vital to the final decision.

4. The cultural background of the family

5. The family's experience with college attendance

6. Family information about college and alternatives

7. Family values concerned with college and the alternatives

Marshall, Sewell, and Haller (1953) find five factors significantly correlated with high school attendance. The most important and significant

factor is nationality background with its attendant value system and cultural outlook.

To examine cultural characteristics with the acceptance of educational programs and practices, Duncan and Kreitlow (1954) matched homogeneous and heterogeneous neighborhoods. Findings show that heterogeneous neighborhoods are consistently more favorable toward a majority of the educational practices and indices. Significant attitude differences concerning amount of formal education required by a farm population exists.

Case in his 1950 study of college as a factor in occupational choice finds that more farm boys, as compared with non-farm boys, regard college as a step toward life's work, but do not regard grades important to future endeavor. Farm boys show more family influence on their choice of vocation and college courses, and tend to make earlier occupational choices.

Youmans (1959) finds that differences in socio-economic status are associated with differences in educational attainments. Youth from rural high-status families make better use of opportunities than those from lower-status families.

In a study of educational aspirations and parental emphasis on college, Bordua (1960) finds sex, religious affiliation, and socio-economic status are related to the presence or absence of college plans.

Characteristics of School Dropouts and High School Graduates, authored by Cowhig in 1960, presents the following generalizations:

1. Dropout rates are lowest in urban areas and highest in rural non-farm areas.

2. When parental income, education, and occupation are considered, rural-urban differences largely disappear.

3. There are substantial differences between Negroes and whites, and between residence categories.

4. Chinese and Japanese youth show the lowest dropout rate, followed by youth from homes whose parents were born in Europe, youth of American-born parents, and Negro and Indian youth.

5. There are differences between graduates and dropouts in the proportions in the labor force, in whitecollar jobs and in the unemployed, with the differences in favor of the graduates.

6. There are differences between graduates and dropouts in the proportions in the labor force, in whitecollar jobs and in the unemployed, with the differences in favor of the graduates.

7. Dropout rates are disproportionately high among low-income families; income differences are high, and become more so with age.

8. A high proportion of female dropouts marry and have children.

9. For males, higher incomes are related to level of education, the difference increasing with age, indicating a cumulative effect of education.

Wilson and Buck (1960) studied certain personal and social characteristics of rural young people that are associated with continued educational achievement. Findings indicate that educational achievement has a definite effect on personality and social adjustment. Logically then, educational achievement also affects occupational and educational choice.

In a similar 1961 study conducted by Buck and Bible, two findings are of particular interest. First, how students believe their parents wish them to be employed as adults is related to continuing education. Secondly, educational aspirations of yotth are related to continuing education.

Weisbrod (1962) discusses education and investment in human capital. A benefit of education is defined as anything that pushes outward the utility possibility function for society. In addition to income and employment prospect benefits for the individual, Weisbrod examines the broader effects on the community and on society.

A 1963 Iowa study by Burchinal, Kaldor, Eldridge, and Arthur states that education affects farm boys' career plans. Their findings show that:

1. Boys planning to farm are less likely to plan to continue their education beyond high school than boys planning not to farm.

2. When asked their preference as to what they would like to do rather than what they planned to do, a majority show an interest in working at jobs that they would enjoy doing, with a greater percentage of boys planning non-farm careers interested in further education - college or vocational. The authors feel that this indicates a need for more area vocational schools in Iowa, in order to provide more variety of educational and occupational opportunity to the youth of the area.

3. Educational plans are, naturally, affected by the resources available to the boy and his family. However, this alone does not account for the differences in educational plans of farm and non-farm boys. There is some evidence that boys planning to farm consider education less necessary than do those not planning to farm. The concern is expressed that, in case the boys planning to farm are not able to do so, their lack of education will prove a handicap in choosing an alternate occupation.

4. A majority of the parents of boys planning to farm have shown little interest in further education for their sons.

5. Other factors, in addition to educational plans, are related to occupational plans - I. Q. scores, scholastic achievement scores, school grades, and ratings of leadership ability. In all cases, the boys planning not to farm rank higher than those planning to farm.

Discussing significant gaps in education and training, Willis (1964) uses the expression "equality of educational opportunity as to need." He contrasts the spreading urban centers and the increased emphasis on urban life with the diminishing rural areas. He sees a need for more work experience for the urban child to test vocational skills and interests. He makes the point that educational opportunities are not adequate to increase the scope and range of occupational choice.

Schultz (1964) relates criticisms of the education for rural youth. He finds that farm people are generally guilty of under-investment in educating their children. He also indicates that the agricultural establishment is too inactive in respect to the education of rural children. As a result of these inadequacies, rural youth is handicapped in career choice because of the lack of adequate educational opportunity.

Anderson, Mawby, Miller, and Olson (1965) find the plans and interests of parents help to determine the child's ambitions and self-concept.

Burchinal (1965) relates that farm-reared parents still lag behind urban parents in their educational opportunities concept perception. An inability to motivate or support their children's efforts to continue education is a possible failure of rural parents.

Eckland in 1965 conducted a study on the interrelated effects of class origin, academic ability, and college graduation on occupational achievement. He finds that college graduation is the dominant factor in occupational success.

IV. Psychological Factors Influencing Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

This section of the report deals with internal factors affecting the individual's decision-making. Certain considerations of intelligence aptitudes, and related factors cannot be ignored in such a discussion.

In a 1939 study, Byrns concludes that occupational preferences have some relation to scholastic ability. A great range of ability level is observed within each occupational-choice group studied.

Concluding that there are significant relationships between vocational preferences and opinionnaire items, Lentz and Nickel (1941) find that vocational preference is a function of character.

Trow (1941) concludes that high school students generally are realistic in distinguishing between vocational probability, possibility, and phantasy. Little discrepancy is generally shown between aspirations and expectations.

Rubisoff's 1942 study indicates that the influence of values as well as interests are involved in vocational choice selection.

Motives advanced for choosing a particular occupation by Fleege and Malone (1946) include: interest in the work; desire to help mankind; personal advancement; feeling of aptitude; adventure; occupation of family members; favorable work conditions; desire for home and children; enjoyment and happiness; security and independence; opportunity for work; social advancement; desire for work experience; persuasion; gratitude to the family; love of nature; desire for fame; love of God; easy work; and no motive.

Studying the personality adjustment of rural and urban children, Mangus (1948) concludes that farm children differ favorably from urban youngsters. They have more self-reliance; greater sense of personal worth; greater sense of belonging; greater freedom from withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms; greater social skills; and superior qualities in school and community relations.

Forer (1953) lists four personality factors in occupational choice:

1. Vocational choice is somewhat blind and implusive, and not primarily rational or logical.

2. Interests and references have unconscious roots which cannot always be rationalized.

3. Choice is an expression of basic needs and personality, with economics secondary.

4. Choice is a personal process, culminating the unique psychology of the individual.

He concludes that personality type frequently determines vocation.

A similar 1953 study, conducted by Small finds that better-adjusted boys are found to be consistently more realistic in their vocational choices than are disturbed boys. Disturbed subjects show more of the needs associated with environment-avoidance.

The scores of adolescent boys on the SVIB test are related to the degree to which they identify with their mothers is a finding of Steward (1959).

French (1959) asks the question, "Can a man's occupation be predicted?" He finds three dimensions from college students:

1. Outcome heavily weighted by somatotype and psychotype.

2. Outcome determined by previous education and family background.

3. Outcome influenced by essentially psychotype.

These results imply that there are forces working to direct vocational choices long before college entrance. Occupational choice can be predicted from a variety of apparently unrelated variables.

O'Hara and Tiedeman (1959) indicate termination of an interest stage by grade ten and a work-value stage proceeding through a secondary phase in grade twelve.

Simpson and Simpson confirmed the hypothesis that values, personal influence, and occupational choice are systematically interrelated. Their findings also show more tendency for students to be influenced by persons in their chosen fields. None of their groups show much parental influence.

In a 1961 study, Blocher and Schutz conclude that vocational interests may result from attempts to develop and implement satisfying self-concepts in relation to work. It is important for adolescents to become acquainted with successful individuals in a test of stereotypes of various occupations.

Nix and Bates (1962) study indicates the importance of role and self-concept in vocational development and satisfaction.

Utton's study (1962) of four groups of professional women has not supported Roe's hypothesis. That is, non-support of subjects employed in person-oriented occupations in recalling childhood home atmosphere as being warmer than those subjects employed in non-person-oriented occupations.

Straus in a 1964 study finds that boys who choose farming as a group, are dependent, shy, and interested in stability.

In 1965, Anderson and Olsen, studying four-year college students and potential junior college terminal students, found data which indicate a significantly greater number of the former group select more realistic occupations than do the latter group.

Summary

Factors Influencing Decision-Making of Rural Youth

Discussing factors influencing the decision-making of rural youth, the review of literature is divided into four main sections: sociological factors, economic factors, educational factors, and psychological factors. Relating to the factors involved, the materials have been gathered and arranged in chronological order. An attempt has been made to list in this summary specific factors which identified in each section. The approximate arrangement is outlined:

I. Sociological Factors

1. Studies of aspirations
2. Studies of migration and mobility
3. Studies on the socio-economic scale
4. Studies on occupational choice of rural youth

II. Economic Factors

1. Studies of occupational choice
2. Cost and benefit studies of education for rural youth
3. Socio-economic scale material

III. Educational Factors

1. Studies of occupational choice
2. Studies of educational and occupational attainment
3. Studies of pursuit of higher education by rural youth

IV. Psychological Factors

1. Studies of occupational choice
2. Studies of aspirations

In summary, a list of the factors discussed in the studies considered is given:

I. Sociological Factors Influencing Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

1. Sex - different interests, aptitudes, traditional attitudes, discrimination against women
2. Previous work experience - on-the-job experience, creating more realistic attitudes
3. Ethnic group
4. Community of residence--town, village, farm
5. Value system - rural VS urban values

6. Need for status - expanded mobility, associated with factor seven
7. Socio-economic position of family - the most comprehensive factor
8. Parental attitudes toward higher education
9. "Informal" school experiences
10. Extent of knowledge about possibilities and opportunities
11. Realism about relationship between aspiration and probability of achievement
12. Degree to which ideas of occupations are stereotyped
13. Mobility and migration of society in general, and the community of residence in particular - the shift to urban living
14. Family tradition
15. Heterogeneity of social contacts of the family
16. Peer group pressures
17. Social changes - wars, depressions, rural-urban migration

The following skeletal list of economic factors influencing occupational and educational choice includes factors previously mentioned as sociological in nature. Some factors have both social and economic aspects and cannot be excluded from either list.

II. Economic Factors Influencing Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

1. Socio-economic status of the family - income, prospects of future income, etc.
2. Quality and quantity of the financial resources of the family and relatives
3. Quality and quantity of the financial resources of the individual
4. Quality and quantity and variety of financial resources available outside of the family - banks, scholarships, NDEA, etc.
5. Capital investment necessary for chosen occupation - this is especially applicable to farming.
6. Occupational status of the head of the household, and his attitude toward it - is the father satisfied with his occupation?
7. Attitude of the parents - are they encouraging toward ambition? Are they willing to make sacrifices to help children obtain higher education?
8. Stereotyped thinking which may result from low-status environment
9. Level of income aspiration
10. Economic condition of the area - depressed, low-income; prosperous, middle income.
11. Educational system as determined by economic conditions - Is the educational system depriving the youth of the area of needed training?
12. The trend away from small, individually operated farms and businesses, toward large, highly organized operations

The following influencing factors are educational in nature for rural youth decision-making:

III. Educational Factors Influencing Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth

1. The amount and quality of education attained
2. The prospects for the attainment of further education
3. The attitude toward educational achievement of parents
4. Past school experiences
5. The general inferiority of rural schools as compared to urban schools
6. The traditional attitude regarding the non-necessity of higher education to farmers

A list of the psychological factors influencing decision-making of rural youth include the following factors:

1. Character - This includes moral traits, such as selfishness, desire for service, etc.

2. Personality - Such traits as gregariousness, interest in people or things, shyness, dependeney, self-confidence, etc.

3. Self-concept - This is interpreted as the individual's view of his own personality, character, abilities and potential.

4. Ideal self - The individual as he would like to be - his personal aspirations.

5. The value system - Instilled in the individual by his environment, and tempered by his own character, personality, etc.

6. Adjustment - The terms on which the individual lives with himself and his environment.

7. Needs - A function of personality, and basic to individual development; the needs of each individual are in some part unique, and have a direct bearing on his choice of a life work.

8. Identification - With peers, parents, "significant others."

9. Psychotype and somatotype

10. Role concept - A function of self-concept and ideal self - the individual must seek and find an appropriate role.

Considering all factors from each of the four selected categories, certain generalizations are drawn regarding factors which influence rural youth decision-making.

Broad generalizations are made for the positive correleation of college attendance and male sex population cencentration of residence (proximity to colleges) and scholastic aptitude. Relatively fewer capable rural males pursue programs of higher education than urban males.

Social class has been well established as a primary factor in college plans.

Economic factors generally do not appear to be a major decision-making factor. Family background, including occupation of father, aptitudes of parents toward education, and education of parents are observed as influencing factors. Parents who have progressed far in school are more likely to have college aspiring children. Forces of primary importance in decision-making come from one's home and family. Secondary forces come from age peers, teachers, and individuals within the community.

A majority of the authorities are in agreement concerning the dominant patterns of territorial mobility. Observing migration from rural to urban areas, this trend is more prolific near larger cities than in remote rural regions.

Sociological studies find that farming is transmitted from father to son in larger proportions than other occupations. However, economic factors relate that fewer young people are entering farming because of combined economic and technological influences now present. Economists see an urgent need for off-farm employment opportunities for rural youth. In addition to educational factors; economic factors point to a need of greater emphasis being given to preparing youth for employment outside the home community.

Several sociological studies relate the act of planning to farm is a deterrent to rural youth planning to attend college. Educational researchers express the same basic theory. However rural youth members participating in post-high school training are more concerned with learning a specific vocation and less concerned with achieving high grades when compared with urban youth.

Marked differences concerning the influences of rural and urban youth exist in the sociological and psychological sections. Psychological factors of rural youth include: more self-reliance, greater sense of personal worth, greater sense of belonging, greater freedom from withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms, greater social skills, etc. Sociological studies on the other hand find significant differences in personal and social adjustment. They propose that suburban youth exhibit a greater degree of adjustment than youth.

On-the-job experience is rated highly by all categories as being an important influence in decision-making.

Religion appears to be an important factor which influences decision-making.

As reported, some disagreement exists among the major theorists in the field as to what constitutes educational and vocational choice. Authorities are essentially in agreement on several points. Occupational choice is not sudden, but it is a gradual process which occupies most of the first half of a person's life. The exact time required is not definite but flexible. Occupational choice is difficult to separate from aspiration and attainment. Aspiration may not be realistic and thus is not always fulfilled. Aspiration, occupational choice, and attainment must be regarded as separate aspects of the whole process, occupational or vocational development.

Expressing occupational choice differently, most theorists view it as a part of the life process of growing into maturity. To develop a realistic outlook at one's potentialities, a person must accept the internal and external limitations imposted by environment. The development of a clear, recognizable image of oneself, the "self-concept" is most important in the decision-making process.

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